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ABSTRACT

The role of the department chair as the interface between faculty and administration is considered, along with the selection, orientation, socialization, and evaluation of the chair. Attention is directed to constraints under which chairs work that are beyond their control and the way that the resulting conflict, overload, and ambiguity impede effective performance. The academic model, which assumes that authority is based on function or expertise rather than formal position, may conflict with the administrative-managerial models. Institutional and disciplinary influences on departmental administration, and the effects of unionism are also considered, along with specific approaches to making the position of chair more attractive. Four major conclusions are as follows: (1) role conflict may be reduced substantially by improving institutional management; (2) education, training, and administrative development is a central need of chairs and their key associates; (3) making the chair's role meaningful requires taking into account career orientations and disciplines, which may require changes in recruitment and selection policies; and (4) new resources may be required to make the role of the chair manageable. Appended materials include a list of films, simulations, and case studies. (SW)

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Report *1982*

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The Department Chair

David B. Booth

Professional Development and Role Conflict

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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The Department Chair:
Professional Development and Role Conflict

David B. Booth

AAHE-ERIC/Higher Education Research Report No. 10, 1982

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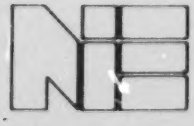

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Foreword

Part of the uniqueness of the academic governance structure of a higher education institution is that the power for decision making lies at the bottom rather than at the top; that is, with the faculty rather than the chief academic officer. The faculty, either formally or through practice, makes decisions on curriculum structure, program offerings, hiring, promotion, and tenure, and therefore, good leadership is imperative. This leadership is assigned to the program or department chair. However, of all the administrative positions in a college this one has the most role conflict and ambiguity.

The role conflict of the chair stems from how chair appointments are made and the resulting questions of personal allegiance versus responsibility for carrying out the decisions of the administration. Most chairs come from the ranks of the faculty, see themselves as teachers and scholars, and view their chairship as temporary, intending either to return to the faculty or move on to a higher administrative position. Most chairs achieve their position through election by departmental colleagues rather than by administrative appointment; reelection, if sanctioned by institutional rule, is still dependent upon peer vote. As a consequence, department chairs more often see themselves as part of the faculty instead of the administration, and tend to represent their colleagues' wishes and best interests. It is no wonder that chairs have been described not as administrators but as "first among equals."

From the administration's point of view, the chair is the primary administrator who works directly with faculty to ensure organizational effectiveness, and who is the frontline supervisor in faculty/administration conflicts. The institution views the chair's responsibility as one of implementing the decisions of the administration.

As external pressures force changes on the institution, the administration must pay more attention to the training and development of department chairs. Especially when change affects faculty interests, there is a greater need for chairs to have a clear concept of their role within the governance structure of an institution. Chairs must be given appropriate guidance and training, if they are (1) to have sufficient decision-making powers to carry out their responsibilities, and (2) to return after their term of office to their original position as an accepted member of the faculty.

In this report, David B. Booth, associate professor in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at the University of Windsor, reviews the role of the department chair and the steps to be taken to make this position more attractive and effective. Booth's findings help give a clear perspective on the issues facing the department chair and the means to be used in strengthening this link between the faculty and the administration.

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I am indebted to many for assistance in preparing this report. The understanding of root problems has been enhanced by a decade of contact with Paul L. Dressel who reviewed the report and made useful comments on it. The report benefited a great deal from the counsel and writing of Ann Bragg. Selected portions were reviewed by William E. Cashin, Robin Content, and Neil J. Smelser. My understanding of administrative development was clarified by documents made available to me by Jack Noonan and John T. Shtogren.

The University of Windsor was generous, too. An early Instructional Development Grant provided initial funding for research. Joan Edwards was an active associate in every stage of the work, from collecting information and analyzing the data to editing the final product. Ruth D. Booth helped with editing and final typing. The University of Windsor's Sociology and Anthropology Department contributed financial and secretarial help through the efforts of Joanne Johnston, Perry Pittao, and Kay Rice. Most of the typing and revising was done with the assistance of Doreen Bauld and Veronica Burleigh and her staff at the University of Windsor's Word Processing Centre.

Producing a report such as this requires a team effort. It builds on the experience and competence of Jonathan Fife and his staff at the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education. I am grateful for their assistance and for detailed suggestions provided by the reviewer and by the editor, Mary Kay Overholt.

Overview

The subject of this report is chairs of academic departments. The report places special emphasis on sources and consequences of role conflict, overload, and ambiguity in the chair's position. As interest in administrative development for presidents and deans grows, it is natural that this interest should expand to include chairs as well. Yet, the chair's role is different because it tends to be a short-time role in a quasi-administrative function.

There is controversy over the consequences of short terms for chairs. Some say short terms permit faculty to do what they want even though institutional interests are damaged. Clark (forthcoming) traces the evolution of the practice of electing rather than appointing chairs to a unique historical development that gives faculty autonomy to monitor and develop scholarship with a minumum of central government control. The control of departments was placed with institutional administrators rather than with a central government. This produces conflict between departments and the institution and places the chair at the center of conflict. Controversy between faculty and administration does not necessarily signify a failure of leadership. Instead, it may signify the culmination of a historical process that accentuates decentralization. As the chair performs mediating functions within the institution, role conflict and ambiguity are normal and to be expected.

Chairs may be appointed for a particular term of office. However, the conditions fostering administrative difficulty, the formalization and routinization of work, and the scarcity of resources may influence the actual length of the term more than formal policy does. Pfeffer and Moore (1980) found this to be true on two campuses of a large prestigious state university system between 1957 and 1976.

Though formal procedures for election and term of office may have little impact on the tenure of the chair, there is evidence that frequent appointments or elections contribute to curricular vitality (as defined by the introduction of new courses). This was shown by JB Lon Hefferlin in a 1969 study of 110 colleges and universities. Among dynamic departments a new chair had replaced an old one in about three-quarters of the cases. Only about 40 percent of the other departments had new chairs.

The issues of departmental development are broader than questions regarding the proper term or the policies on election. Each policy alternative has its shortcomings. Institutions will be forced to make decisions taking into account the type of discipline, the relative influence of the chair with the dean, and the constraints operating due to unionization. To attract and retain chairs, institutions need to ask what demands will be made on the chair, what financial incentives are available, and what risks of professional obsolescence the chair takes during his or her term and afterwards (Zorn 1978).

No matter what policy is used to select chairs, role conflict and ambiguity are common when chairs take office. This may be the case even when a chair has worked in a department for many years or if he or she has had experience outside academe before coming to the department. A study by Ann Bragg (1980) relates socialization theory to the experience

of 39 chairs at Pennsylvania State University. The study confirms expectations that academic perspectives are dominant among chairs. This study, and another completed at Miami University (Waltzer 1975), show that chairs have an ambiguous mandate when they accept their appointment. They accept the position for a number of reasons: other acceptable candidates are not available, they are bored, or they wish to initiate a change in the academic program of the department. Once at work, they usually receive help with the technical facets of work rather than with the political and social facets, which are of primary importance. They cannot expect to receive help from outgoing chairs.

Orientation and development programs for chairs need to take into account research on the distinctive role orientation that chairs bring with them. These include:

- *faculty orientation*, which focuses on helping faculty or reducing conflict
- *external orientation*, which focuses on graduate education and related external grants
- *program orientation*, which focuses on modernizing degree programs
- *management orientation*, which focuses on managing resources effectively

The type of role orientation chairs have influences their goals at the time of appointment, sources of stress, and the external and internal reference groups with whom they become involved.

The role of chairs is also influenced by disciplinary form: the degree to which disciplines share common scholarly goals and agree on the means to achieve them. Consensus on these matters makes administrative leadership acceptable. Dissension is likely to make faculty suspicious of the administration and unwilling to accept long-term appointments of chairs (Smart and Elton 1976).

Research such as that conducted by Smart and Elton (1976) and Bragg (1980) provides a context for initiating administrative development and evaluation programs for chairs. The most successful programs use experienced chairs to educate new chairs. One way to achieve this objective is to use case histories that are written by chairs. Studies by Smelser and Content (1980), Selby (1978), and Booth (1975) show how departments have been successful in mediating internal conflict and in developing the consensus necessary to recruit efficiently and in a way that considers the human needs of applicants.

Successful administrative development programs usually begin with an informal or formal needs assessment (Seagren 1978). The program may be organized from the office of the academic vice president, if it will cover campuswide issues, or it may be put into operation within a single division or school by a dean. The focus of the program may be changes in institutional management, which the chairs will request, or improvements in departmental administration, which will be the objective of administra-

tion. Topics may include how to organize a department; how to work with faculty on salary, promotion, and tenure decisions; and how to understand and prepare a departmental budget (Monson 1972).

These programs often are designed so that they make only modest demands on the chair's time. They accomplish this by providing brief reading materials, setting up short orientation meetings with experienced chairs, or arranging options for extensive work with consultants and experienced chairs. A seven-day administrative development program for chairs has been field-tested and is now available from the American Council on Education. Complementary programs in which chairs work on personal and organizational issues have also been developed.

The process of designing administrative development programs requires making a number of decisions. Should chairs be brought together with others in the same discipline or with those in unrelated disciplines? Should the programs be held on or off campus? Experience suggests establishing a balance between continuity and diversity by having group discussions on practical issues among chairs in similarly sized departments. Broad policy issues are usually not of interest unless they can be directly related to the problems chairs face.

An administrative development program creates a framework for the evaluation of chairs. Methods of evaluation include a short objective questionnaire; a system to clarify objectives among faculty, chair, and dean (Ehrle 1975); and full discussion with faculty on the performance of the chair when the chair is up for reappointment. A DECAD system of evaluation (Hoyt and Spangler 1979) permits chairs to set their own goals and to learn how faculty evaluate their success in reaching these goals.

The chair's relationships with faculty may be constrained by tradition and the fact that the chair will return to faculty status at the end of his or her term. Under these conditions, it may be unreasonable to expect the chair to be a dynamic administrator. Rather, chairs may learn how to work with other faculty, with outside consultants, and with the administration to establish a workable plan for their term. The constraints on departments are such that it may be unreasonable to ask the chair to do alone what can be done only through collaborative work with faculty and administration.

Departmental Autonomy as a Source of Conflict

This report focuses on the department chair* with major emphasis on selection, orientation, and evaluation. Even though the influence of the chair has been reduced through collective bargaining (Baldridge, Kemerer, and Associates 1981) and the centralization of authority, the chair remains the only office that attempts to interpret the department to the administration and the administration to the faculty. This function becomes exceedingly important in an era of rapid change.

The objective of this report is to consider some of the constraints under which chairs work that are beyond their control; to show how the resulting conflict, overload, and ambiguity impede effective performance; and to understand ways in which these problems have been partially anticipated and resolved.

The report concentrates on the role of the chair as the interface between faculty and administration. Because the community college division head often is more a part of the administration than of the faculty, much of what is written here will not apply to community colleges except for the report on evaluation (Stone 1977).

This is not an exhaustive study of chairs as it does not include a review of the literature on departments as organizations nor does it cover, in depth, a review of ways in which organizational and career development theories can be useful to chairs in their work with faculty (Scott 1981, p. 4).

Academic Models for Governance

What is a department? There is little consensus on the nature of the department as an academic unit. Conceptually, an academic department is one that gives allegiance to a discipline beyond the institution (Clark forthcoming, chapter 2; Anderson 1976). Since a single department can have more than one discipline (Faricy and Dressel 1974), a more practical definition of a department is that it is the basic administrative unit of a college or university. Although departments claim perpetual ownership over their budget even in bleak times, the key aspect of the department for this report is its monopoly over teaching, research, and service within a particular realm of knowledge.

Early development. The frequent criticisms of academic departments for inner-directedness and fragmentation ignore the historical role of the department in facilitating institutional objectives (Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus 1970; Benezet 1977; Harrington 1977). Historical studies indicate that the academic department in the United States was created to accommodate the fragmentation of coursework that came with the end of the prescribed classical curriculum, the development of new disciplines, and the need to create a manageable unit for faculty.

Research on the evolution of departments notes their progressive spe-

*The term chair is used in a generic sense to cover the work of a department chairperson or head.

cialization. In the 1770s Harvard had tutors who specialized in a subject matter; by 1825 Harvard had established departments. Head professors were assisted by tutors who remained on campus for a year or two after graduation. Faculty in departments had already gained control over the curriculum (Rudolph 1977, p. 77). By 1872 there were assistant professors and senior professors (p. 144). Disciplinary departments accommodated the development of new disciplines and the need to create a manageable administrative unit for faculty with related interests (Veysey 1965, pp. 320–21). Each university insisted on teaching a "full line" of courses. The department enhanced institutional prestige through the research of its professors even if teaching was neglected (p. 144). A pattern of institutional and departmental life was established by the 19th century that had within it much of the tension, fragmentation, and competition that remain today.

The chair inherits these tensions and, except for situations where the department is oriented to the institution rather than to the discipline (Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus 1970, p. 216), the chair's role is to "improve the prestige of the department." As the protector of faculty, the chair accepts an "academic model" that seeks to increase the department's autonomy, stature, and resources.

The disciplinary department is a unique and highly respected research-generating organizing structure. The conflict, the ambiguity, and the lack of "order" in departmental governance appear to be a direct consequence of a unique historical evolution that provides autonomy for faculty and leads to a more democratic system of governance and academic work than one finds in European or Latin American institutions. The typical leader of disciplinary activities in countries with greater central control of colleges and universities is the "head"—a faculty member appointed for life. Under this system there is less overt conflict than one finds in U.S. colleges and universities because careers of junior faculty depend on the approval of the head, who can delay their promotion on personal grounds. This rather rigid system of higher education reflects strong centralized control, a weak central administration, and the governance of academic units by a single senior faculty member.

The conflict that is found in U.S. departments is consistent with weak government control of university personnel and policy and a relatively strong administration to mediate conflict. In the United States, departmental policy reflects a unique type of peer control of departmental life. The focus is on graduate education and research eminence. This position, taken by Burton Clark and associates (Clark forthcoming, chapter 2) on the basis of years of cross-cultural research, is that the disciplinary orientations of departments are essential to the development of knowledge; these orientations cannot be changed by fiat and are natural manifestations of the organization of academic life. Disciplines justifiably retain the primary allegiance of faculty (Clark forthcoming; Clark and Youn 1976). Experiments to reduce the power of departments by retaining funding for undergraduate instruction in special theme or residential colleges have had limited success. The most effective way to counter the power of de-

partments is to create new institutions where departments are not so powerful. But this is hardly likely in an era of tight budgets (McHenry 1977, p. 224).

The emphasis on decentralized authority at the expense of central control is explained in part by the unique characteristics of colleges and universities. These include:

- The integration of teaching, research, and service in academic departments. Each of these functions may attract different types of faculty and may require different styles of management (Millett 1968, p. 87);
- The diffusion of responsibility for rule making and implementation (Corson 1960, p. 10);
- The lack of clear-cut separation between instructional and faculty personnel management (Millet 1968, pp. 151–52), or between the funding and staffing of graduate research functions, undergraduate teaching, and service (Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus 1970 p. 231). Chairs must combine academic, coordinative, and management functions without having the means to reward faculty for excellence in each.

The uniqueness of the university as an institution calls attention to the fragility and complexity of authority relationships. The academic model assumes that authority is based on function or expertise, rather than on formal position. Understanding how to sort out what is functional and what is a legitimate right of management can be difficult indeed.

The academic model asserts that governing a college or university is intrinsically different from managing an organization outside academe and that academic values, including the denigration of management, should predominate. The basic assumption is that the temporary loss of efficiency caused by faculty election or control of the selection of administrators will be more than balanced by the use of functional rather than hierarchical authority to make decisions.

The Administrative-Management Model

Institutional administrators, responsible for coordinating the work of faculty in academic departments, see the negative features of the academic model. Their position is that academic freedom is stretched to license individual and departmental irresponsibility. Dressel summarizes this position in his book on *Administrative Leadership* (1981). He notes irresponsibility in such areas as the scheduling of classes to take into account student needs (pp. 148–49) and the over-professionalization of degree requirements for undergraduates (pp. 159–61). He sums up the position of those who feel that greater control must be exerted over departmental decision making when he says that:

> *Faculty insistence that matters of curriculum, faculty appointment, promotion, and the like should be delegated to the department is at the root*

of many of the problems faced in higher education today. It has become necessary, on every campus, to review critically recommendations for promotions, granting of tenure, and new positions to assure some reasonable semblance of equity. Departments can be unduly rigid or unreasonably flexible, depending on the circumstances of the units and the personalities involved (pp. 151–52).

This administrative challenge is reinforced by that of a former chair who believes that departmental decision making is not truly academic, but simply a method to support incompetence and negligence (Edwards 1973, p. 185).

Institutional Conflict in Departments

As academic and administrative-managerial models clash, departmental administration is unlikely to show a single and consistent pattern of management. Instead it is likely that elements from an academic model will lead to a pattern of influence where there are degrees of faculty and administrative dominance rather than all of one type or all of the other (Mortimer and McConnell 1978, p. 11). There will be differences in dominant patterns within the same institution and across institutions. Sometimes faculty authority will influence appointments, promotion, tenure, merit, and curriculum decisions. At other times these decisions will be shared, primarily controlled or dominated by faculty or administration.

A complex role for chairs results especially when their source of influence with faculty or deans is not formalized. David W. Leslie (1973) suggests that:

As long as the faculty member's obligation to the chair is unspecified, the chair's authority must necessarily be functionally based if the chair has any authority at all. Under these circumstances the chair's style of operation will more likely be to gain the consent and approbation of faculty members than to rely upon formal position to exercise whatever "rule" he wants to exercise. Political skills, professional prestige and other characteristics will be the instruments of authority. . . . The situation for any given chair, however, is complex. He/she may well possess control over certain organizational sanctions while at the same time having to rely on functional authority within the departmental sphere. Or, authority may be based on internal institutional political ties built up over a number of years which give access to, if not formal control over, the application of sanctions. . . . The determination of the chair's status is a matter for empirical study. . . . No formal job description can be written for the chair as the job simply offers individuals the chance to establish their own authority over some decisions on the basis of their skills (p. 425).

Conclusion

The academic department, a unique administrative unit that permits faculty to use peer judgments to organize work, has been able in the past to

define the criteria for administering departments. This model excels in the organization of research. The strength of its academic focus leads the department to minimize the importance of management and continuity in order to maximize the likelihood of maintaining a pluralistic and democratic system of governance. The dominance of the academic model is challenged by a model that emphasizes the dysfunctions of specialization and autonomy in an era in which coordination between departments has become essential. These complicated relationships between academic and administrative cultures are reflected in a complicated role for the chair. This causes chairs to be uncertain about their status and causes the source of their authority to be ambiguous.

The Chair at Work

Term of Office

Much research on chairs comes from a series of studies called the VIPS Study completed by the Office of Institutional Research of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. A questionnaire was sent to chairs that contained 74 items concerning their environment, time spent on duties, their goals, and their thoughts concerning role satisfaction. The survey was administered in 32 public doctoral-granting universities ranging in size from 9,000 to 21,000 students. Usable returns were obtained from about 1,200 chairs—a respectable 73 percent return.

At the time of the study about one-half of all chairs had been in office for fewer than four years (McLaughlin and Montgomery 1976, p. 80). Professional departments had appointed chairs to serve for an average of 6 to 8 years, whereas chairs in disciplinary departments were selected to serve for an average of 3.4 years. There is clearly a rapid turnover of chairs, especially in disciplinary departments. In mathematics departments, 15 percent of chairs served less than one year according to a study completed by Bowers (1980, p. 56). Uncertainty of status and ambiguity with regard to authority may reflect the short term of chairs.

New research on departments provides insight into the determinants of succession rates for chairs. Jeffrey Pfeffer and William L. Moore (1980, pp. 387–406) note the average tenure of academic chairs on two campuses of a large, prestigious state university system over a 20-year period. The degree to which there is consensus within a discipline regarding goals and methods (often termed the maturity of the paradigm) was the *single best predictor of average chair tenure* for both the 1957–76 period under study and the 1967–76 period. The larger the department the shorter the tenure of the chair. Tenure is positively related to the growth in the proportion of regular faculty in the department. Tenure of chairs also increases with the number of senior faculty in a department. The most significant finding was that formal succession rules did not significantly influence the tenure of the chair when account was taken of the maturity of the disciplinary form (or paradigm). In the last 10 years of the study, when competition became increasingly keen for resources, it was the paradigm rather than the structural variables related to the way the chair was elected that affected the length of term. The factors that appear to be central in determining the length of term include: (1) the conditions that foster administrative difficulty; (2) the conditions that foster administrative turnover with less disruption, such as routinization or formalization; and (3) conditions of scarcity in the environment of a department (pp. 402–3).

Although the conditions affecting tenure for chairs are not significantly determined by the formal term of office, (since chairs may step down earlier if they wish), a system of rotation appears to encourage innovation, at least according to the research of JB Lon Hefferlin (1969). Hefferlin's study of 110 colleges and universities found that when departments were innovative (e.g., had established new courses), it was usual for them to be headed by a new chair. Hefferlin reports that among the 73 most dynamic departments a new chair had replaced an old chair in 74 per cent of the

cases, compared to 39 per cent of the others, where chairs had been in office for as long as 24 years (p. 114).

What Chairs Do

In keeping with the academic model of governance, the administrative subrole is least preferred. Chairs in comprehensive universities spend about 21 hours per week in departmental administration and leadership activities and about 5 hours per week in college- and universitywide activities (McLaughlin, Montgomery, and Malpass 1975, p. 247). Administrative types of duties include internal management (maintaining records, administering the budget, managing staff employees) and liaison activities. The most unpopular internal management duties include maintaining student records, managing physical facilities, and preparing and presenting the budget. Linkage tasks are reported as somewhat more enjoyable but still disliked (p. 247). Chairs like the opportunity to work with others outside the department, but they also report that they would be equally satisfied in such associations as faculty members (p. 247). Chairs do not see their work as central to faculty. They do not believe that excellence as chairs brings recognition from faculty.

Statistical studies of how chairs spend their time and what enjoyment they get from their subroles show that they prefer the academic role (McLaughlin, Montgomery, and Malpass 1975). Academic duties, especially teaching and advising students, are most enjoyable. Chairs report that they spend about one-half their time teaching, advising, or performing research: about 12 hours per week in teaching and advising and 8 hours per week in research and professional development (p. 246).

Leadership roles involve program development and work with people. The program development role is one that a majority of chairs like. They say that their main reason for continuing to work as a chair is to facilitate program development. Yet chairs note that they could strengthen departmental offerings without being the chair. This appears to reduce the salience of the position vis-a-vis regular faculty. (The importance of program development for chairs will be noted later in Ann Bragg's study [1980] of preferred roles of chairs). As chairs increase the amount of time spent in program development, their satisfaction with this facet of their work also increases.

The personnel functions of the chair involve potentially satisfying and frustrating experiences. Chairs spend more time with personnel issues as departmental size increases; the type of school or college does not influence the amount of time spent on personnel issues. Chairs make a personal choice about how much time they will spend on personnel issues (McLaughlin, Montgomery and Malpass 1975, p. 252). Those who enjoy working with personnel matters spend more time doing so.

Disciplinary Influences on Departmental Administration

A primary achievement of research on departments is a description of academic, professional, and personal environments that roughly link the

goals of disparate disciplines, the duties of chairs, and the personality of faculty. The key idea is that the consensus that exists around the goals of groups of academic disciplines spills over into consensus or conflict with regard to departmental management (Biglan 1973). Three types of departments emerge from the analysis: (1) those that emphasize theoretical vs. applied studies (a primary division); (2) those that emphasize science vs. humanistic or social studies (here quantitative vs. non-quantitative studies is an important distinction); and (3) those that emphasize living vs. non-living systems. This classification scheme has been useful in identifying diversity in scholarly output. Faculty in quantitatively oriented departments produce more journal articles than those in nonquantitatively oriented departments. Faculty in nonquantitatively oriented departments produce more books and monographs (Creswell and Roskens 1981).

There are significant diferences, too, in the orientation to research, instruction, faculty matters, and coordination among chairs, depending on the relative emphasis of a department on theoretical, experimental, or living vs. nonliving subject matter, according to this point of view. These differences, in turn, affect what the chair actually does in various subroles. Although the overall finding that chairs prefer not to engage in managerial and control functions is consistent with expectations, there are significant differences by clusters of disciplines that attract different types of faculty. The research on the duties of chairs suggests some of these (Smart and Elton 1976). Faculty development is favored among chairs in departments of government and business management. Instructional development is favored by chairs in departments such as art, architecture, classics, English, and journalism; it is clearly rejected by chairs in the sciences and some engineering departments (chemical and electrical). External coordination is accepted in business fields but rejected by chairs in science (p. 46).

Research on discipline provides some guidelines for understanding where cooperation or conflict is likely between faculty and administration in an era in which centralization of administration is encouraged. These findings suggest a basis for administering departments to take into account the natural diversity created by departmental forms. Differences in disciplines may provide the context for the administrative development of chairs, as well.

Institutional Influences on the Chair's Work

Paul L. Dressel, F. Craig Johnson, and Philip M. Marcus's case studies of 10 universities show that the discipline did not determine the relative influence of departments (1970, pp. 144–46). Negotiations between chairs and deans depended as much on trust as on the objective strengths of departments. There is a constant search for resources. But the capacity to garner these resources depends, as the authors note "on the existence of both departmental self-confidence and confidence reciprocated among the department, the dean, and the university . . . there is no simple pre-

scription for attaining these" (p. 145). Chairs work in a constantly changing political situation that today requires more and more coalition building and teamwork. If a department does not have its own resource base its capacity to maintain autonomy is likely to depend a great deal on the political skills of the chair.

The Effects of Unionism

With unionism there has been an attempt to specify the allegiance of the chair either to administration or to faculty. Hobbes' (1976) review of this controversy showed that there has been no single criterion used to determine whether the chair should represent faculty or management (p. 106). At this writing, the criterion for making this determination is unclear. The debate has been complicated by the decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in the Yeshiva case, which has implications for many private colleges. The Court found that the Yeshiva faculty held the role of managers (Clarke 1981, p. 450). If the chair continues to attempt to represent faculty and if the contract defines the chair as a manager, relationships between faculty and the chair may become complicated indeed.

The commitment of chairs to faculty or administration is reflected in the procedures used to select chairs. These procedures include appointment by the dean alone, appointment by the dean after consulting with a selection committee of faculty, or appointment by the department independently (Mobley 1971, pp. 323–25). When a state system forces decisions by confrontation between workers (faculty) and management (central administration), as was the case in Minnesota after the state decided that collective bargaining was legal for state employees (Ehrle and Early 1976), the power of the chair to mediate conflict between faculty and administration ends. The locus for decision making shifted to those negotiating a master agreement for the state and negotiating agreements for each campus (pp. 152–53). The principal result of collective bargaining has been to increase the authority of faculty in the selection of the chair.

Unionism has increased the authority of faculty in the selection of chairs in four-year colleges (Adler 1978). In about 25 percent of the liberal arts colleges polled the chair was selected solely by faculty. In about 50 percent of the cases the chair was selected jointly (p. 25). A nonrandom review of AAUP contracts with regard to the selection of chairs in liberal arts colleges and universities indicated that it has been common for faculty to elect a chair with the appointment conditional on approval by the dean or president. If the administration decides to override a candidate, the department may impose its own chair by a two-thirds vote.

Although unionism has increased faculty's power to select their chair, it has decreased the formal authority of the chair. Union contracts now define procedures for recruiting and promoting faculty and for awarding tenure (Baldridge, Kemerer, and Associates 1981). The chair has had to adjust to a more formalized relationship with the union and administration. The chair must develop documentation to support recommendations for more funds or for recruiting and promoting faculty or awarding tenure.

The net result has been to formalize the chair's work, put it under more constraint, and shift to new administrative styles that require more skill in communication, coalition building, and lobbying (p. 15)

The authority of the chair often is partial and issue-specific. Thus Ross (1977) found in a nationwide questionnaire study of decision making (115 colleges and universities) that although chairs initiate salary increases in about two-thirds of the cases, they infrequently are involved in the final decision (p. 108). In a less critical area, leaves of absences, they have more authority; they make the final decisions in about one-third of the cases (p. 109).

The chair is forced to be alert to challenge from within and without. A frustrated faculty member who is denied tenure may sue the chair and the institution for redress. To prevent this, the chair needs to follow tenure regulations scrupulously, giving negative feedback early if it seems in order to protect the institution and to prevent the faculty member from having unrealistic hopes.

Research literature can provide information for the chair that can be used to justify internal policies that promote salary equity and fair teaching loads. The University of Illinois has established a statistical means to measure discrepancies in faculty salaries that takes into account average salaries, years at present rank, professional experience, and publications (Braskamp, Muffo, and Langston 1978). A salary survey of this kind provided chairs and deans with salary data that were used to make needed salary adjustments, particularly for women (p. 244). Research may also help chairs develop more equitable approaches to assigning teaching loads. A study by McLaughlin, Montgomery, and Mahan (1981) showed how chairs judged the effort needed to perform various instructional tasks. Regression analysis showed that disciplinary form, size of class, mode of instruction, and level of class affected perceptions of an equitable workload. As enrollment increased, effort increased, but at a decreasing rate (p. 14).

The chair also needs to be aware of challenges to a department's program and to its existence. The chair may need to respond promptly to a negative evaluation of the department by an assessment committee or to a review of departmental retrenchment strategies and their past outcomes (Melchiori 1982).

Research may be conducted on the teaching effectiveness of a department, in comparison with that of other departments in the institution, if it is possible to control for the knowledge of incoming students. An example is a study by Rodney Hartnett and John Centra (1977) of approximately 40 departments of biology, business, mathematics, and psychology in small institutions emphasizing undergraduate education in the liberal arts. Scores on SAT examinations made by incoming students in the department were compared when a control was made for freshman student scores in the same subject. The results show that departments have distinctive patterns of teaching effectiveness, that only one or two departments within an institution is highly effective in teaching (p. 498), and that traditional

indices of teaching quality (student-faculty ratio, faculty interest in teaching) did not correlate closely with departmental effectiveness in teaching.

The influence of the chair appears to vary by field of study. Neumann found that chairs in the social sciences perceived that they had more influence over career-related decisions in less selective departments in the social sciences than did chairs in the physical sciences. However, faculty had the reverse perception (Neuman 1979, p. 289).

The ideal role prescription for the chair includes a wide range of administrative and intellectual skills. A number of authors have presented their views on the subject including Heimler (1967), Key (1969), McKeachie (1968), and Roach (1976). They advocated that chairs should have:

- special abilities in planning, leadership, communication and coordination, and representing and negotiating
- the ability to work well with students and alumni
- facilitating skills and problem-solving skills
- the ability to organize and administer the department and involve and evaluate faculty.

In addition, the chair needs to be able to relate to other units in the institution such as student services and the library. Jennerich (1980) has written a detailed statement about how departments can select books wisely and avoid the tendency to concentrate book orders in areas of special interest to a few faculty. As chairs become aware of computerized information-retrieval services, they may be able to encourage faculty and students to expand their use of the library (p. 11).

Recent studies suggest the importance of conflict-management skills when chairs are faced with difficult tenure decisions (Scott 1981). Chairs need special abilities to work with faculty who are denied tenure to help them deal with the shame and anger they are likely to feel (Ragland-Sullivan and Barglow 1981).

Ever since Doyle made the first study of the *Status and Function of the Chair* (1953) there has been a continuing press for authority that fits responsibility. Since then a stream of studies has documented the discrepancy between role expectations of chairs and the expectations of those with whom they work. To better understand the role conflicts facing the chair, Herbert Waltzer completed a study for the Council of Deans and the Provost at Miami University (Waltzer 1975) documenting the conflicts that arise as the institution strengthens its research focus. He shows how chairs confront difficult personnel problems and difficult relations with administration involving competing administrative and collegial affiliations while, at the same time, attempts to maintain their personal research (pp. 14–15). Additional research generally supports the belief that role conflict is a troubling and endemic facet of the chair's role. The single exception is a study by Falk (1979) at the State University of New York at Buffalo. Falk found that there was consensus with regard to the duties of the chair among faculty, chairs, and administration.

Role Conflict

It is not surprising that chairs experience role conflict. It is especially common among people who work as managers, perform liaison or linkage roles, or are asked to produce new solutions to problems (Kahn et al. 1964). The national interview study conducted by Robert L. Kahn and associates found that about one-half of all persons interviewed reported conflict with their manager (p. 379). Role conflict may result from differing expectations among those with whom a person works or from competition among personal beliefs as to what should be done. Kahn's study notes that the emotional costs for the person who is at the center of role conflict include low job satisfaction, low confidence in the organization, and a high degree of job-related tension. A frequent response to role conflict is:

> *withdrawal or avoidance of those who are seen as creating the conflict. . . . Symptomatic of this is the attempt of the conflicted person to reduce communication with his co-workers and to assert (sometimes unrealistically) that they lack power over him . . . such withdrawal, while a mechanism of defense, is not a mechanism of solution. It appears to reduce the possibility of subsequent collaborative solutions to role conflict (p. 380).*

On certain issues the department is necessarily in conflict with administration. The department is designed to maximize the unit's resources, but there are obvious limits to the resources that can be distributed at any one time.

Conflict between departments and institutional management does not necessarily reflect poor management. Instead, it may reflect a dynamic research enterprise that gives vitality to scholarship through peer control of academic decisions, as was discussed in the first chapter. What is in question, however, is the capacity of institutional management to continue without some reduction in the autonomy of departments. Unresolved role conflict is likely to perpetuate mistrust and alienation in colleges and universities.

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity, a type of role conflict, occurs when there is inadequate information as to what is expected. The chair may be uncertain about the way in which the dean evaluates work, about the scope of responsibility, and about the expectations of others for the role. In the national study conducted by Kahn and associates, 40 percent of all workers reported ambiguity at work (p. 380). Ambiguity can be productive to the degree that it permits role development that is consistent with new conditions. But ambiguity can be nonproductive when chairs need to take aggressive and informed action to protect the interests of departments.

Socialization as a Source of Role Conflict and Ambiguity

Socialization is the process of learning what the chair is expected to do and generating the motivation to do it. Policy making with regard to the

chair requires empirical data on expectations for the role upon appointment, the specificity of the charge from the dean, the perceived value of prior work experience, technical training and education, and the influence of graduate school and other academic experiences on the role models chairs bring with them. It is also important to know how chairs learned their job and from whom. Finally, it is important to know what differences exist among chairs in their orientation to the role.

The discussion that follows summarizes research on these matters. The main source is a study by Ann Bragg (1980) in which 39 chairs at Pennsylvania State University were interviewed after submitting their curricula vitae. The sample was selected to give proportionate weight to chairs in all departments. Penn State is a large institution, well-managed by nationwide standards, so the findings suggesting inadequate socialization of chairs for their roles do not reflect the experience of an institution that has been poorly managed. Although the Bragg study refers to a large single institution and may not fit the experience of others, it is the only known study that applies socialization theory to the experience of chairs. It provides a logic for analysis that is based on the experience of researchers in many fields.

Bragg found that the charge to new chairs was either diffuse or nonexistent. Only two chairs recalled that the search committee or faculty gave them a mandate or charge, although many reported that the search committee or faculty elicited their opinions (p. 94).

Of those chairs polled 36 percent had specific ideas about why they had been selected. Twenty-three percent felt they had been selected because of their strong professional reputation or experience. Ten percent felt they had been selected because they could unify the department by either strengthening a weak subfield or by linking related subfields. About half the chairs who were former members of the department indicated that they were chosen because faculty knew and trusted them. Forty-three percent of those who were brought in from the outside felt they were chosen because of their previous professional experience (p. 95). If there was a mutual agreement on goals between the chair and the dean, the underlying assumptions on how the goals could be reached were not clear. The result was conflict and ambiguity.

Whether or not the dean or faculty provide guidelines for policy, chairs have definite ideas as to why they accepted the position. For example, one major motivation was that there was no one else who could do the job, because there was no one else with whom they would feel comfortable as a chair (Bragg 1980, p. 96; Waltzer 1975, p. 8). Also, there may have been no appropriate alternative candidate. Another motive relates to academic-professional activism. Chairs sought challenge to counter boredom or to demonstrate strength in faculty or program development. Those coming from another institution wanted to move to a new community or to a more prestigious institution (Bragg 1980, p. 97).

Academic folklore militates against an open espousal of an administrative role so it is hard to know whether power and visibility is not an

implicit goal, too. As Dressel comments, scholars are not expected to seek or enjoy work as a chair (Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus 1970, p. 82). Most chairs did not accept the position with the hope of moving into a permanent administrative post (Bragg 1980, p. 96; Waltzer 1975, p. 8).

The data, taken as a whole, suggest that chairs may bring new energies and commitment when they take office, especially if they are from another institution or if they take the job because of its challenge. The thrust for change that comes from the energies of new chairs who take the position because of its challenge is balanced by pressures for continuity among those who take the position unwillingly.

Who Teaches the Chair?

Conflicts between academic and administrative conceptions of the proper mode for organizing academic life affect what is perceived appropriate in the way of orientation and socialization for new chairs. Even though professional schools have a specified mission that could clarify the ways in which their departments should be organized, chairs in the professional schools are particularly interested in assistance. A letter from a new chair in a professional school in response to a personal request for information to help chairs epitomizes these dilemmas:

> *We have no [orientation] program for chairs, formal or informal. I am an incoming chair of a department and my only preparation is that of observing informally the activities of the outgoing chair.**

Bragg's study provides a sense of the diversity of socialization needs. Roughly an equal proportion of chairs (20 percent) asked for help in handling interpersonal relations; learning how to operate within the university's political system; and mastering the management functions of purchasing, budgeting, hiring, and long-range planning. Almost one-quarter felt they needed to learn "everything"—procedures, interpersonal relations, the political system, and even how to set up files (p. 98). Although chairs are concerned about human as well as technical matters, their orientation tends to concentrate on technical rather than personnel issues. Almost all chairs received help from the dean and his or her staff. Most found the head secretary or administrative assistant helpful. About one-half received assistance from other chairs. Only one-quarter said that they received help from none of these sources (p. 100).

What about assistance from the outgoing chair? Queens University in Kingston, Ontario, schedules the appointment of the new chair to begin during the last summer of the former chair's term. This arrangement is designed to enhance collaboration between the incoming and outgoing chairs. Theoretically the outgoing chair can provide counsel and information to help the new chair make a smooth transition. Yet if there is a difference in policy between the two or a conflict in personality, there

*Patricia Montgomery 1977; personal communication.

should be little or no collaboration. Again, Bragg's study provides data on these matters. In her sample of 39 chairs, one-third said that they *never* consulted with their predecessor. About one-third said collaboration was infrequent, and about one-fourth reported frequent collaboration (p. 101). If there is consensus between the new and outgoing chair, collaboration can be helpful. This consensus may be rare. Where there has been conflict, it may be useful if the outgoing chair can be away for a while so that the new chair can initiate new policies.

The administration-management model of departmental governance would suggest that a good background for success as a chair is industrial experience. Bragg's data show that this is not necessarily true. There is no necessary transfer of experience between industry and academe. However, if a new chair has worked previously as an academic chair, a project director, or as head of a research institute, this experience proves helpful.

Role Clarification

The conceptions that chairs developed about their proper roles evidently were formed through discussions with faculty (about one-third of chairs saw all members of their faculty every day) plus frequent informal meetings with other chairs (p. 102). A definition of role emerges that is built on reactions to earlier graduate school experiences, contacts with faculty, and contacts with administrators. This definition is largely consistent with the findings of survey data (Smart and McLaughlin 1974; McLaughlin, Montgomery, and Malpass 1975; Smart and Elton 1976). Bragg's study showed that chairs in the Penn State study could be divided into four role orientations with accompanying patterns of socialization (p. 143). These four role orientations were characterized by a primary focus on faculty, external relations, program, or management.

The *faculty role orientation* (16 of the 39 chairs) focused on internal relationships: helping faculty with their work, reducing conflict, and improving faculty morale (p. 116). The primary sources of stress were also faculty related. These chairs were concerned about maintaining their own scholarly careers, maintaining the effectiveness of faculty, and dealing with those who were not productive.

Those with an *external orientation* (seven chairs) were concerned about external grants, the funding of space and equipment contracts, or the improvement of graduate training. Their primary sources of stress were the slowing of available research funding plus faculty who were nonproductive in research (pp. 116–17).

Chairs with a *program orientation* (seven chairs) often were aware of changes in their disciplines and wanted their degree programs or sequences of courses to be up-to-date. Their sources of stress included: the inability to obtain funds for new programs or for instructional equipment, the unavailability of new faculty positions, the load presented by nonproductive faculty, and the time it took to get a new curriculum proposal approved (p. 117).

Chairs with a *management orientation* (nine chairs) defined themselves

as leaders, facilitators, or coordinators. Their goal was to manage resources effectively. Stress for them came from: intradepartmental conflict, nonproductive faculty, and the need to allocate fewer resources than they felt were needed to be effective. They believed that chairs should be involved in both college and university decision making (p. 118).

These role orientations are described further in Table 1.

Distinctive orientations of chairs correlated in a meaningful way with their self-characterizations as faculty or administrators. The 23 of the 39 chairs with the faculty or external orientation identified themselves as faculty, not administrators. The chairs with a management orientation characterized themselves as administrators. Those with a program orientation vacillated among program, faculty, and management orientations. The consistency or inconsistency of chairs' self-characterization as faculty or administration and their career plans at the time of the interview are summarized in Table 2 (p. 143). An analysis of these data shows that chairs with a faculty orientation are consistent in self-characterization and career plans. But this is not true for other orientations. Even those with a management orientation do not necessarily plan to move into administration when their term ends. There are some cross-currents favoring an administrative orientation among those with the external, program, and management orientations. But clearly those with the faculty orientation consider working as a chair to be a temporary assignment.

This type of research suggests the possibility of identifying chairs with different types of motives and reference groups and with different types of administrative development needs.

Table 1: Responses to Interview Items Used to Assign Department Heads to Role Orientation Categories

Interview Items	Role Orientation Categories: Faculty Orientation (N = 16)	External Orientation (N = 7)	Program Orientation (N = 7)	Management Orientation (N = 9)
Primary responsibility	Faculty development; facilitator; interpersonal relations	Representer; finance	Program development	Coordinator; leadership; facilitator
Goals at time of appointment	Improve faculty quality; reduce conflict; improve research opportunities	Increase number and level of grants; improve courses; increase space and equipment	Increase productivity; develop model programs; change program direction	Reorganize department for efficiency and productivity; improve morale; increase prestige
Source of stress	Faculty personnel issues: promotion, tenure, productivity, own research productivity	Finance; faculty research productivity	Faculty too few and productivity, startup and equipment costs	Resources; non-productivity; interpersonal relations
Extra-departmental involvement	Professional associations	Professional associations and other external agencies	University level	College and university levels

Reprinted with permission from Ann Kieffer Bragg, "Relationship Between the Role Definition and Socialization of Academic Department Heads." Ed.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1980, pp. 116–18. Slightly modified.

Table 2: Self-Characterizations and Career Plans of Chairs

	Role Orientation: Faculty N = 16	External N = 7	Program N = 7	Management N = 9
Self-characterization of chairs	Faculty	Faculty	Vacillate	Administrator
Career plans	Return to faculty	Consider administration	Return to faculty	No pattern

Administrative Development, Evaluation, and Reward

A broadened conception of what chairs have accomplished can give direction to developmental efforts by showing the complexity and difficulties in the role, balanced by an understanding of what chairs have achieved on their own. One source for such information is case studies that were written by trainers of chairs (Bennett 1982) or chairs themselves (Booth 1975; Selby 1978). The story of the transformation of Massachusetts Institute of Technology's Civil Engineering Department in anticipation of a drop in enrollment has been completed by Steven Ehrmann (1978).

It is unusual for chairs to write about their work. When they do, the case studies may provide a sense of the challenge, breadth, and frustration of the position of chair (Fisher 1978). The experience of chairs who faced complex problems of recruiting and faculty development are summarized here.

The few faculty positions that open up for outside recruiting force difficult decisions on departments and chairs. The personal preferences of faculty have to be meshed with societal pressures for accountability and affirmative action.

When positions are widely advertised departments are flooded with applications. However, they usually receive no additional resources to conduct the search. This overload is likely to be especially severe in elite departments although there is little in the literature to clarify policy alternatives for chairs. A study of *The Changing Academic Market* by Neil J. Smelser, former chair of the Sociology Department at the University of California, Berkeley, and his former assistant, Robin Content (1980), illustrates how a chair can help initiate action by faculty and administration that will develop policies adapted to the new labor markets.

A perplexing issue is how to allocate scarce new faculty positions among competing specialties. The Smelser-Content book notes how conflict arose between faculty with divergent criteria for making an appointment even when deaths and retirements gave the department the opportunity to make three appointments in a single year. Among the practices adopted in this recruiting effort were:

- Decisions were made to generate the largest possible pool of candidates for each position and to be in a position to assure all candidates a consistent, careful, and thorough consideration of their qualifications (p. 87). The department agreed to review the written work, letters of recommendation, and vitae of all applicants.
- Separate assessment committees were established to review the qualifications of applicants. Faculty were selected for their expertise in relevant areas. To ensure fairness the three members of each personnel subcommittee made independent assessments of a candidate's written work, career, and vitae. More than one-half of the faculty participated in assessing each candidate's qualifications (pp. 91–93).
- Ratings were computerized, as was the complete search process. This made it possible for the department to present to search committees computerized rankings by faculty of the relative standing of

candidates with regard to their academic work, references, and vitae. The department also had data on the proportion of candidates who came from elite and nonelite schools (pp. 96–98).

Despite these efforts to carry out the recruitment in a democratic way each of the candidates hired came from the most selective universities. Of the 11 candidates interviewed, only one came from a second-tier university (p. 179). However, the process of organizing the search and arranging for an open decision-making process in academic disciplines where there is substantial conflict over means and ends may be relevant to recruiting decisions in departments in moderately selective institutions also. The task requires long-term planning and coordination between administration and department, an increased amount of faculty and support staff involvement, and technological support. The Smelser and Content study provides some guidelines for change in recruiting policies and indicates the need for additional resources to balance the time and energy requirements of an expanded recruiting effort.

This study puts the nuts and bolts of departmental administration within a broad frame of cyclic changes in the academic labor market. The research suggests the limits of administrative development programs to cope with personnel issues that are beyond the control of a single department. Smelser and Content suggest the need to give attention to basic change:

- More realistic admissions policies on the part of departments to anticipate future market demand for Ph.D's (p. 181)
- More activity to nurture talent early so there will be a natural flow of talent into graduate departments from minority groups (pp. 181–83)
- More cooperation between graduate departments and their own students who seek placement in other institutions to systematize placement (p. 183).

Portions of Smelser and Content's book (1980) could form the basis for a case study for chairs and administrators as it raises issues that go to the heart of conflict within departments (pp. 123–30) and between departments and administration (pp. 105–7). The central problem appears to be the growing demands for accountability on departments at the same time that resources for departments are reduced. This changes the character of academic leadership in departments so that:

> *leaders must mediate between an increased number of constituencies both within and outside the academic department, constituencies that press a number of conflicting criteria for decision-making. In such a context, successful leadership calls more for strategies of navigation among conflicting goals than for strategies of maximization of a single set of goals (p. 172).*

Another case study by Stuart Selby (1978) on recruiting in a moderate-sized department suggests strategies that may be useful to chairs. A moderate-sized department can be split unnecessarily if an appointment is made without the approval of all faculty. Differences can be brought into the open and the consequences of making an appointment can be openly discussed. But a strategy for decision making needs to be planned. The chair may decide to interview all faculty personally to permit them to express private views that might be difficult to express publicly. The process of decision making can be as important as the outcome. It may restrict choice and lead a department to restrict competition. However, an orderly and open discussion in a reasonably strong department preserves the sense of colleagueship. When the department is fully included in the decision-making process Selby (1978) believes that recruiting mistakes still may be made but the department will be better able to live with these mistakes.

Frank discussions with the candidate before the appointment can help clarify mutual expectations with regard to student advising, committee work, and the faculty member's responsibilities with respect to research funding. If a department is recruiting a well respected research worker, its assumptions regarding teaching load and the expected quality of teaching need to be candidly discussed *before* the appointment. After an appointment has been agreed to, some chairs write a detailed letter to the prospective candidate clearly stating departmental expectations. This is important as both candidate and prospective employer may mask role expectations before the decision to appoint (Hall 1976, p. 37).

The case histories discussed here illustrate the complexity of the role of the chair in different types of departments. They represent a growing pool of knowledge on the operation of departments than can be used to help understand what roles chairs have played in the past and what roles they can play in the future development of departments.

Making the Position More Attractive

To attract capable faculty members to work as chairs and to influence current chairs to continue in their role beyond the original term (McLaughlin and Montgomery 1976), several suggestions have been made by practitioners and scholars. These are summarized below:

1. Make sure the position is one of some power and influence and recognition (money).
2. Relate effective work as the chair to salary increases.
3. Indicate what will be done to reduce overload. Options may include: (a) selecting two cochairs, thereby permitting each to assume half the work (this was done at the McGill University Department of Sociology); (b) delegating responsibility so that the role of the chair becomes manageable (Tucker 1981, pp. 28–47); (c) improving institutional management so that there are fewer requests to chairs for similar information.
4. Offer the new chair research assistance with or without a reduced load.

5. Offer the chair a sabbatical when his or her term ends.
6. Improve the quality of support staff or provide technical assistance in the management of laboratories and/or the preparation of budgets. If the budgeting function were given to a support staff person, this would increase the attractiveness of the position. Yet it could reduce morale if budgeting were handled outside the department.
7. Offer educational and training options.

The Need to Clarify Roles

The need for better clarification of the relationships between the dean and the chair and for more support for chairs, especially those who have chosen to work as a chair for intrinsic personal reasons or to help build a program, is suggested by John Bennett on the basis of an informal survey of chairs (1982). Bennett, program director of the Departmental Leadership Institute of the American Council on Education, suggests: (1) clarifying basic roles and procedures; (2) giving chairs information before faculty receive it; (3) discussing policy options with chairs before they are announced; and (4) respecting the chair's authority by not permitting disgruntled faculty members to go over the head of the chair to talk with the dean (pp. 15–16).

Programs

A typology of development or intervention moving from the least obtrusive to the most obtrusive, focusing first on the chair and later on the institution, is useful in organizing the development and change models that are now available (Boyer and Grasha 1978, p. 31). The following section describes and comments briefly on programs specifically designed for college and university department chairs.*

Modest programs to clarify roles. Because of time constraints and personal preferences, some chairs are open to practical reading but not to group sessions. A selection of readings has been compiled by Rehnke (1982). The most complete training document now available for chairs is a book on *Chairing the Academic Department—Leadership Among Peers* by Allan Tucker (1981). Tucker tested the material on at least three cohorts of chairs in the Florida State University systems. The book is written in plain language with a minimum of administrative terminology. Its 13 chapters present a summary of what a chair should know about the chair's role; powers and responsibilities; types of departments and leadership styles; delegation and committees; department decision making and bringing about change; faculty development and evaluation; performance counseling and dealing with unsatisfactory performance; faculty grievances and unions; dealing with conflict and maintaining faculty morale; goal-setting; budgeting; assigning and reporting faculty activities; and managing time, peo-

*Other resources and consultants are available from such organizations as the American Management Associations and the National Training Laboratories.

ple, and money. Chapters are followed by exercises that permit chairs to relate the ideas presented to their department. This book is now used as the core of the American Council on Education's Departmental Leadership Institute. A dean might give this book to a new chair at appointment and agree to discuss controversial points at the chair's request.

The Tucker book can be used by institutions that have very different approaches to departmental administration and management. It presents management options for departments that some chairs will not accept, such as contracting with faculty to achieve particular objectives and then evaluating them on the basis of their success in these efforts (Buhl and Greenfield 1975). The power of the book comes from its acceptance of academic norms in which no person asserts the right to tell a chair what to do. The book suggests several options for administration and governance.

Shorter monographs have been used by chairs and deans. The Department Chair Program of the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education (WICHE) published short monographs that are available to chairs on request. Popular monographs included a "Memo to New Department Chairmen" by Wilbert McKeachie, with suggestions on recruiting, faculty participation, course assignments, and establishing a committee structure that does not overburden faculty (McKeachie 1968) and a statement by James Delahanty on "What Faculty Want in a Departmental Chair" (Delahanty 1972, p. 221). The most popular monograph was a short one by Charles Monson reporting his frustrations when he first became the head of a philosophy department and included a brief description of what was done at the University of Utah to assist chairs (Monson 1972).

An institution may ask some of its staff to produce brief research reports or monographs to help chairs on particular issues. Ronald Boyer and Anthony Grasha report on their work with chairs in a 1978 article (p. 33). Short publications on such topics as "The Assessment of Faculty Performance" (Grasha 1972) comb and distill the literature on selected topics and techniques.

Even chairs who have been on the campus a long time before their appointment may find it difficult to understand how a department interacts with other units. Courtlyn H. Hotchkiss (1967) has written a handbook (now out of print) that gives chairs a table of organization, explains the financial constraints on each office, and tells in simple language how the chair should go about handling appointments, budgets, and the hiring and evaluation of faculty and support staff. The handbook, written by a dean to make life easier for chairs, explains to them how administration works.

Peer learning through information exchange. Chairs can learn about departmental administration through *internal programs* (internally developed educational programs) or through *external programs* (off-campus learning activities).

A primary goal of development programs is to clarify role expectations

among the chair, administration, and faculty so that there is less role conflict and ambiguity. Given the norms of academic life this requires discussions of issues among peers—with those who either work or have worked as chairs or with those whose professional expertise gives them credibility. Another primary goal of development programs is to introduce chairs to a network of colleagues they can continue to consult with after the program ends. If chairs do not have expertise in a specific area, simply knowing who has can help them direct others to this person at the proper time. These programs are designed to strengthen chairs in their administrative and managerial roles by permitting them to discuss their successes with others and by learning that the disagreeable and persistent problems they face are not a reflection of personal failure but are endemic to their role.

Since 1968 there have been many attempts to improve the performance of chairs through formal programs. The following section suggests some of the goals of these programs in terms of substantive programming and design. The diversity of colleges and universities and the diversity of departmental types within a single college and university make it inappropriate to suggest that a particular program, goal, or method should be used without adaptation.

There have been several approaches to peer learning. In one approach chairs meet with other administrators to jointly assess institutional and departmental priorities and policies. The principles of organizational development are used here to design programs on the assumption that when the direction of an institution has been clarified and when conflicts between departments and other units are brought into the open, the roles of chairs can be clarified as well (Booth 1978a; Zion 1978; Webster 1978; North and Markovich 1978).

A simpler program is to bring new chairs together occasionally with experienced chairs to discuss such matters as: (1) the budget: how to obtain and save money; (2) recruiting and retention: finding and keeping good people; (3) the department and its publics: student affairs, public relations, and the development of research interests and competencies among faculty; (4) the hard problems: internal dissension, what to do with faculty who are no longer productive. This type of program, with complements for secretaries and administrative assistants, can be successful at a minimal cost when the agenda is developed by participants and when participants dominate the discussion so that problems of overload, conflict, and ambiguity can be presented and policies to deal with them can be considered. The program outlined here was established for new chairs by Charles Monson at the University of Utah (Monson 1972).

Disciplinary Training and Forums. Since 1963 the Association of Departments of English (ADE),* with a membership of 1,000 departments,

*Information on activities of the Association of Departments of English was provided by telephone by Dexter Fisher, Phyllis Franklin, and Jaspar Neel.

has sponsored summer institute for chairs on administrative and educational matters. Seminars balance discussions of pragmatic issues of departmental administration with discussions of new trends that affect English departments. Day-to-day management issues are reviewed in small groups led by experienced chairs or by invited guests who have special expertise. Salient information from these meetings is available to the ADE membership through a quarterly bulletin.

ADE has commissioned a study of graduate education in English and recently has proposed standards for permanent part-time faculty, largely as a result of policy reviews conducted at the summer seminars. Under the leadership of Jaspar Neel, a former director, it initiated a series of workshops for Ph.D.s and graduate students to help them network with English Ph.D.s working outside academe to improve their chances of nonacademic employment (Booth 1979, p. 88).

Seminars and informal discussions on administrative issues occur in other disciplines without the benefit of a permanent professional association. Meetings of chairs have been held in philosophy, psychology, and sociology. The Teaching Resources Program of the American Sociological Association has built a publications and workshop program for chairs to complement its program to improve undergraduate education.**

Although the Association of Foreign Languages and the Association of Departments of English have been successful in integrating administrative with professional issues in a collegial fashion, this approach covers a small proportion of chairs. Is it possible to use disciplinary ties to initiate comparable dialogue in other academic disciplines? The author is aware of only one example where an academic association and a chair have joined hands to clarify the nature of administrative problems and search for partial solutions in a context that considers institutional as well as disciplinary interests. For seven years Gregory A. Kimble, chair of the Department of Psychology of Duke University, did this in collaboration with the National Council of Graduate Departments of Psychology (1971, 1974, 1978). His simple and relatively inexpensive procedure involves mailing informal questionnaires to present and past chairs requesting information on problems, attempts at solutions, and comments on the effectiveness of these solutions and requesting general comments on the nature of the chair's role. The results were assessed, published, and discussed at the annual meetings of the Council of Graduate Departments of Psychology. Although these reports are now out of print, a smaller edition has been published by John Wiley (1979). Kimble's reports are nationally known for their candor and incisiveness (1971, 1974, 1978). As these discussions at the annual meetings were held among chairs from many institutions, suggestions were made to reconcile departmental and institutional interests. Disciplinary fact-finding is relatively simple and inexpensive and may be applicable to other disciplines.

**Information is available from the American Sociological Association, 1722 N Street NW, Washington, D.C. 20036

External Training. Since the chair works within an institutional context, the primary responsibility for training must fall to institutions. Training might be coordinated to strengthen individual and collaborative efforts. The regional decentralized approach to training was initiated by WICHE in the late 1960s by W. John Minter with the assistance of the Danforth Foundation. The WICHE program (Booth 1969) evoked reaction from chairs and administrators that persists today. Chairs were both pleased and repelled by the program. The pleasure came primarily from the opportunities to share frustrations and to realize that the obstacles chairs faced were not a reflection of personal weakness. The negative response came from administrators who perceived a real need for an administrative development program for chairs and volunteered their services to build one on their campus. Many had perceived the need for some time but felt blocked because there was so little attention given to administrative development on their campus. The WICHE program permitted them to express their interests by organizing a local program, which was strengthened by the participation of outside experts and by chairs from other campuses. The success of individuals in creating training events was buffered by the difficulty of making them appealing to nearby institutions. Proximity did not lead to feelings of community. Instead, experience indicated that administrators and chairs viewed themselves as having the same kinds of problems as did colleagues in similar types of institutions elsewhere. The mixing of different kinds of institutions in a region made collaborative programming more difficult.

The WICHE program may have caused suspicion among administrators who felt that an attempt was being made to pressure them to accept an industrial model of management. When enthusiasm developed for a regional program, there was no common learning frame or network to bind people together. The issues were clouded. Some pressed for changes in the tenure system. There was little consensus as to what the role of the chair should be. Thus it was difficult to envision how an external "training" program could be sustained.

The American Council on Education's Departmental Leadership Institute is one answer to this dilemma. Teams of chairs from an institution, occasionally with a dean, are invited to meet with other teams from institutions in the same state over a one-year period. They meet for three and a half days in the fall and three and a half days in the spring. The assumption is that chairs from institutions who are working under the same public funding agency will benefit from talking together about the key facets of their work and discussing budgets within a common external budget framework. The program also assumes that chairs will learn more from working in a diverse group, with chairs from other disciplines, than from working solely with chairs in their own discipline. The design puts into practice principles that have been successful in other settings: peer discussions of practical issues, recognition of the different needs of small and large departments, and a modest amount of attention given to general policy issues that transcend departments. Institutions select participants

and pay their travel and living costs. Instructional costs are paid by the state. The program is designed to raise the morale of chairs, help them to see that their frustrations are universal, introduce them to new ideas, and initiate them into a network of peers with whom they can work when the program ends. This program has been made available to colleges in the Missouri and Tennessee state systems; the state colleges of Minnesota, Nevada, North Dakota, and South Dakota; and the community colleges in Colorado. The program also could be arranged to serve individual institutions and consortia.

The aversion of academics to management programs, shown so strongly in the WICHE Department Chair Program in the late 1960s, lingers on. Chairs and faculty remain suspicious of external attempts to provide education or training. Tucker reports tremendous hesitancy on the part of chairs to participate in the ACE program for chairs. However, once chairs attend the first session, they usually return for the second.

In an era in which resources for faculty are being reduced and when program evaluations have led to the termination of a few departments (Melchiori 1982), it is understandable that faculty will be fearful of the imposition of a standard management system. This anxiety may contribute to the difficulty of working with chairs confronted with problems that require an application of academic and management styles of governance.

Programs to deal with basic problems. *The Limitations of Training.* An occasional workshop with systematic follow-up may have limited value even when considered effective by chairs. Shtogren worked with chairs for three years on such topics as evaluating faculty performance, managing conflict, and setting departmental goals (Shtogren 1978). Although chairs told Shtogren that the information gained in workshops was relevant, well presented, and useful, they seldom put it to work. In subsequent interviews and analysis Shtogren found that chairs were insufficiently motivated to use the information they had learned, and they objected to outsiders telling them what they should do. If they spent time helping their faculty teach better, they would have less time for teaching, research, or to spend with their families. In addition, chairs believed they lacked influence with their faculty (p. 190).

Shtogren suggested the need for working with chairs in group settings, increasing specialized training resources that have "face validity" by acting more in a collaborative than an instructional mode, and adapting industrial materials to the culture of chairs. Finally, Shtogren called for organizational support for chairs. The basic premise is that the chair *and* faculty need appropriate incentives if training is to be productive (p. 193).

Regional Approaches to Administrative Development. Buhl worked for two years with 38 chairs from northern Ohio universities. Deans nominated teams of chairs to learn how to carry out needed internal projects through inhouse consultative help plus participation in 15 workshops. This program put into practice Shtogren's suggestions for continuity and work

with deans. The program was reasonably successful in getting useful work done. Twenty-five percent of the participants initiated and completed a project that was useful both to the participant and to his or her campus (Buhl and Lane 1979, p. 3). The program produced desired results if the dean actively supported the idea of administrative training, let the chair know that training was important, and maintained frequent contact with the chair. Five deans felt that the chair's role had been clarified with the development of an appropriate administrative style. Three deans reported improvements in departmental communication and/or more effective teamwork between the chair and colleagues outside the department. The investment was about $3,000 per chair. The focus of the Buhl project was on social and human skills rather than on technical skills. A majority of the chairs liked the diversity of the program; a minority preferred working with chairs from similar institutions (p. 5).

Regional programs of this type were intended to lead to institutional programs, but these were not established. Nor did the WICHE program lead to persistent institutional programs. It may be that the most effective way to spur administrative development for chairs is to provide a variety of externally based programs or incentives for establishing internal programs. Just as faculty development programs were initiated in some institutions with external funding on a progressively declining basis, comparable funding may be required to establish administrative development programs.

Consultants as Initiators of Change in Departments. One approach is to provide internal and external assistance to chairs to help departments deal with important issues that may have been hidden in the past. A chair may know that a issue should be addressed, yet be unable, alone, to get a department to face the issue. Internal and external programs have been created to initiate factually based discussions on issues, initially with the help of a consultant. Ronald Boyer and Anthony Grasha (1978) worked as internal consultants at the University of Cincinnati to identify hidden problems in departments and to learn how a department can deal with them. As consultants, they agreed to obtain full information on the functioning of the departments as seen by faculty and students. Faculty had to agree to spend time assessing the meaning of the data Boyer and Grasha assembled.

The basic idea has been adopted by at least one state system. The headquarters of the California State University and College System, under the direction of Dorothy P. Miller, associate dean of faculty and staff affairs, has provided consultative assistance on request to departments. Their policy has been to insist that there be at least one person in the department who will legitimate and support the effort. This type of intervention could use a variety of data-gathering instruments including those by Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus (1970) and Miller and Whitcomb (1978). Institutional and external assistance is helpful when there is a crisis that cannot be identified or dealt with internally.

Strengthening Institutional Management

A chair and department may be in a position to make significant changes in the curriculum, for example, without a major change in the institution. But on management issues, the key factor may be institutional change. If chairs raise their aspirations for change without corresponding changes in the institution, frustration may be the result (Nordvall 1979). One resolution to this dilemma is to use development strategies throughout the organization. This approach has been recommended by the Higher Education Management Institute (HEMI). It was founded in 1976 under a grant from the Exxon Education Foundation to design an institutionwide organizational development plan for higher education. It has adapted the organizational effectiveness model of Rensis Likert to higher education. The model is comprehensive and includes the assessment of management tasks, processes, activities, and skills. It provides for chairs to work on their own to improve communication and time planning. Success depends on commitment of the president to back the program and to require everyone to participate. In the first phase, HEMI consultants work with the institution. As the campus gains familiarity with the program, it can direct the program on its own. An institution may choose to work with HEMI and still organize programs for chairs.

Designing a Program

The literature suggests that program decisions should take into account the accessibility of chairs and the depth of program intervention in the life of the chair. Some interventions can be made with little conflict (distributing books, monographs, or rules). Somewhat more conflict is expected as one moves from this mode to options for peer learning through information exchange either on or off campus or though an academic discipline. The program that appears to have the greatest payoff with the smallest relative investment is a brief orientation program for chairs where they meet with experienced chairs to discuss key issues such as personnel assessment.

It is possible, of course, for an institution to go beyond these standard options by developing an individualized and flexible approach to the socialization and education of chairs.* This could be done through discussions between the chair and administration or by permitting the chair alone, or with colleagues, to work with professionals who have special skill in personal and organizational development. These programs will take longer than others and the outcomes may be more intangible. They may evoke greater pressures for institutional change. At the end of the continuum of options is organizational development for the entire institution.

In planning, certain desirable features for the program should be considered. These suggestions for administrators were made by Robert C.

*One way to recognize excellence in administration would be to nominate a chair for the American Council on Education's Administrative Fellowship Program.

Nordvall in a 1979 AAHE-ERIC/Higher Education Research Report. Essential requirements to be considered are paraphrased below (p. 33):

1. Is there a clear relationship between development activities and daily work tasks?
2. Does the program consider the needs of the department, chair, and dean? Does it permit a search for the most appropriate style of administrative behavior without assuming that any one style is necessarily correct?
3. Does it permit chairs to have a sense of ownership of the program, and does it provide incentives to participate in it? Are there also incentives for others to work with chairs when the program ends?
4. Does the program attend to personal and career concerns as well as job skills?
5. Does the program have modest initial expectations? If it does not, everyone may be disappointed.

When chairs have some of these options for development the process of evaluation can be meaningful.

Evaluation of Chairs

Perceptual distortion if evaluation criteria are ambiguous. Without realistic priorities and goals, chairs have vague criteria to use in assessing their achievements. Under these conditions it is natural for chairs to focus on the activity in which they were most successful. This tendency is reported by Ann Bragg in her study at Pennsylvania State University. When asked to make an assessment of personal achievement no chair termed his or her performance to be unacceptable, although chairs could rank each other's performance and agree as to who was superior (Bragg 1980, p. 109). This situation appears to be common. There seems to be a natural tendency for people to overrate their achievement at work. Even though there may be consensus externally, an individual may be unaware of the judgment of peers.

The Pennsylvania State study provides information that is relevant to these issues. Chairs report that although they receive an annual evaluation of their work it appears to give them little satisfaction in terms of a valid and in-depth evaluation. Left on their own, Bragg reports that 70 percent of chairs felt that they had improved the instructional programs in their departments, especially at the undergraduate level. Chairs saw instructional and program development as an easier task than faculty development. It was considered more difficult to affect the productivity of faculty or reduce conflict, restore order, or improve morale.

Role clarification when chairs are elected or appointed. When contracts specify the term of the chair, recall before the term ends can be initiated if a specified number of faculty, often two-thirds, call for the recall. In unionized institutions it is common for the department to recommend a

single candidate with the provision that if the administration rejects the candidate for cause, the faculty will present a new candidate for chair. Frequently the term of the chair is limited by contract so that a chair may serve two three-year terms or two five-year terms. Faculty contracts may limit the authority of administration to review the performance of chairs. Collective bargaining may also change the relationship between chair and dean so that they cannot work together administratively (Ehrle and Earley 1976). Thus the following review of evaluation policies needs to be understood in the context of constraints that affect different institutions and state systems in diverse ways.

Institutions differ, of course, in the methods they use to evaluate chairs. There is little written on this subject that is conceptual and that may provide guidelines for policy makers. Brief mention will be made of three systems of evaluation at this point; additional information appears in Appendix I. The following section concentrates on conceptual differences and special features that may be of value to different types of institutions.

Administrative-management model. The dean may be able to make the reappointment or reelection of the chair an occasion for having the chair's performance reviewed by the chair, administration, students, and related departments. This may be the time to have chairs define their own criteria for a good chair and to rate themselves on these criteria. The key concept can be the open confrontation of different interest groups and individuals to assess with the chair past performance and to measure the chair's likely performance in terms of the perceived needs of the department. This approach, which was developed by Elwood Ehrle (1975) while academic vice president of Mankato State College, is consistent with the norms of the administrative model that was discussed in the first chapter. It also builds on principles of organizational development.

A second method to evaluate the chair at the time of reappointment that is more in keeping with collegial norms involves the dean meeting with all faculty personally in their offices to get individual reactions to the chair and the department. A detailed report by J. Osborn Fuller (1967) of evaluating chairs through in-depth probing of faculty experience appears in Appendix I. This strategy has the value of giving the dean a perception of how the department operates that is broader than could be attained through previous contacts with the departmental chair.

Institutional options for evaluation. There are several choices available to institutions with regard to the evaluation of chairs. Some institutions may select a thoughtful and courteous approach to objective evaluation that does not take much time for faculty members to complete but provides information on a variety of dimensions of the chair's role. The evaluation may be internally or externally developed.

The self-made evaluation approach is exemplified by a questionnaire that has been used by the College of Arts and Science of the University of Missouri, Kansas City (Chair Evaluation Questionnaire 1979). The college

asks faculty to complete a rating form commenting on 11 facets of departmental administration. The evaluation questionnaire is largely objective although it asks for voluntary additional comments, including a request for a large-scale review of the department. The questionnaire, in its format and content, acknowledges the complexity of the work of the chair and is organized so that faculty are unlikely to answer it mechanically. This is shown by the wording of the introduction to the questionnaire:

> *Because there are so many facets to the position of Chair, it will be very helpful if you will evaluate him/her in terms of the many aspects of the job. It may also be instructive for the faculty to realize how much is involved in the successful performance of a Chair. Please feel free to respond to only those questions which you believe applicable (Chair Evaluation Questionnaire 1979).*

This introduction to the questionnaire is followed by questions about the work of the chair. Faculty use a 10-point scale to report on leadership in the discipline, work done or needed to strengthen instruction and orient new faculty, the adequacy of communication within and outside the department, and the fairness of the chair. The questions on fairness include whether the chair has been fair with regard to tenure decisions, salary increases, teaching load, and class schedules. There are also summary questions about administrative style, office management, and the overall performance of the chair (rated on a 5-point scale). The questionnaire ends by asking for anonymous written comments. Faculty may request a conference with the dean if they wish.

An institution may also wish to review three objective systems to evaluate chairs. The first is an administrator evaluation survey (AES) developed by Dennis D. Hengstler and associates (Hengstler et al. 1981) using a questionnaire administered to about 200 faculty in six departments in a large midwestern university. The study compared faculty perceptions of the chair's overall effectiveness on a diverse set of characteristics: leadership in the promotion and tenure processes, encouragement of professional growth of faculty, and facilitation of balance among academic specializations (p. 260). This research may be particularly useful because it permits the administration or the chair to relate the perceived performance of the chair with faculty satisfaction regarding the department's academic environment, governance and operating procedures, and satisfaction with student quality (pp. 263–64).

A similar but older evaluation system, DECAD (formerly termed DECA), was designed by Donald P. Hoyt. He originally designed a system to evaluate faculty teaching that permitted the faculty to rank order their instructional goals and then note student perception of whether their teaching was effective in achieving these goals. The idea was to involve faculty in an evaluation system that was developmental as well as judgmental.

This same principle was applied to the design of judgmental and de-

velopmental evaluation systems for chairs. Hoyt and Spangler (1979) identified 15 activities that cluster into three basic functions that correlated with faculty definitions of the overall effectiveness of the chair: (1) personnel management, (2) departmental planning and development, and (3) building the department's reputation (p. 10). The reliability and validity of the DECAD questionnaire was established by analyzing the responses of 103 chairs from four large universities offering doctoral work.

A telephone poll of DECAD users revealed some strengths and weaknesses of the system. One chair reported that DECAD had helped him interpret a source of conflict in the department. Another said that DECAD had been helpful in learnig whether he was moving the department along too fast or too slowly. The system, however, provides much more feedback than most chairs can interpret on their own. It takes on more meaning if there is someone, other than the dean, with whom faculty can talk in confidence. Like any evaluation system, it loses its charm if used too often. Chairs said they would use it only once in two or three years so that faculty would not feel overburdened by such assessment.

Deans use DECAD to acquire information on faculty perceptions of the performance of chairs. Although they have other sources of information, a system such as DECAD provides evaluative data as well as information on what makes a chair effective. It indicates faculty perceptions of the extent to which a chair uses democratic practices, initiates activities, provides leadership, and is personally sensitive. The factors that make a chair effective are more likely to be similar to those that make a dean effective, particularly in a liberal arts college (Booth 1978b, pp. 76–79).

Another evaluation system was developed by Stone (1977). Four community colleges asked division heads in humanities divisions to describe their best and worst division head. With this information an evaluation instrument was developed showing how well the division head works with people (p. 122) and manages (p. 124). It also describes his or her professional qualities (p. 129). This work could be extended to develop comparable evaluation instruments for chairs in other divisions. The face validity of the evaluation instrument should be increased since it has been produced using faculty judgments of quality.

Strengths and weaknesses of evaluation. A principal strength of evaluation for chairs is the assurance this provides against the continued service of chairs who are incompetent and/or authoritarian. Clearly a department suffers if it is poorly administered. With program termination a possibility (Melchiori 1982), faculty have a clear interest in dynamic and informed leadership.

The less obvious importance of evaluation is the damage that comes to an individual when there is a poor fit between the chair and the department. An inability to manage can increase tension for the department and the chair and can make it less likely that the chair can continue with scholarship. Corrupt alliances can be made in which a caretaker chair serves to balance the tension between two competing elements in a de-

partment. This can be damaging to the chair, especially if the chair is young, is not a full professor, and lacks the potential for career effectiveness. Many departments have provisions for the removal of the chair if two-thirds of faculty request it. The dilemma facing many institutions is that performance may be marginal but not sufficiently unbearable so that faculty will press for the removal of the chair.

The basic weakness of evaluation is that it goes contrary to the culture of professionals. Ideally, professionals are geared to peer evaluation in which private discussions are sufficient to initiate remedial action where necessary. The primary problem is that the evaluation process produces tension especially if periodic evaluation is not linked with development throughout the year (Meyer, Kay, and French 1965). Even in community colleges where management-by-objectives systems of evaluation have been established for some time, division heads are calling for more autonomy and an evaluation system that is more professional (Thomas 1978).

Reward

The primary source of satisfaction for chairs must come from nonmonetary rewards since their financial stipend is usually modest. The decision to continue as a chair depends primarily on the balance that exists between the satisfactions from working as a chair and the satisfactions from working as a faculty member. (The detailed chain of causation affecting satisfaction and commitment is reported by McLaughlin and Montgomery 1976, pp. 89–98).

The same data that were used to identify the duties of chairs were analyzed using path analysis to establish the conditions that lead to satisfaction among chairs (McLaughlin and Montgomery 1976, p. 93). Three models are required to depict the major sources of satisfaction for chairs in comprehensive state universities (pp. 85–95, 97). The primary model is an *academic* one that emphasizes the opportunity to pursue a discipline or profession. Less experienced chairs in large, nondoctorate-granting departments were the least satisfied in this typology (p. 84). The next most powerful model, an *achievement* model, emphasizes ego and social motives for achievement. The least satisfied chairs in this model are assistant or associate professors in large departments in colleges of arts and science. In contrast with other chairs, this group spends much less time on development activities than on internal control duties, budgeting, and record keeping. As they spend more time on administrative duties, satisfaction with their work as a chair declines. Chairs who were moderately satisfied were placed in a typology termed *autonomy*, where the primary sources of satisfaction are planning and faculty development and support. Major sources of dissatisfaction in this typology are budget control and record keeping (pp. 86–87).

In analyzing the meaning of these findings for policy, McLaughlin and Montgomery note that there have been many suggestions to provide more support for chairs in the form of administrative assistants to take responsibility for control functions and for budgeting. If this were done the

department would be more efficient, yet chairs would lose control over affairs that they and their faculty now believe to be essential. The emphasis on control may come from external pressures for accountability. When chairs and departments resist this control, further centralization of authority is likely. This chain of reaction is bound to create more, rather than less, role conflict (p. 87).

Previous discussions in this section have reviewed options for administrative development for chairs that should make chairs more comfortable and administratively more effective. McLaughlin and Montgomery suggest (pp. 87–88) that the response of chairs to these offers is likely to be lukewarm. The author's experience confirms this view. The key issue appears to be a perceived feeling by chairs that the position is of little importance to faculty. Chairs also feel that their work has little value to administration. Unless there is a way to recognize superior effort and success, symbolically or through a salary increase or promotion, it seems unlikely that the average chair will make a significant career commitment to administrative work. For those who find the work filled with strain from the start and show little administrative ability, the greatest reward may be an opportunity to step down gracefully. On the other hand, those who show superior promise in administration should be recognized and encouraged to deepen their skills.*

Career decisions after the term ends. Early career aspirations continue to affect the career interests of chairs when their terms end. Their primary concern is loss of disciplinary or professional competence. Campuses such as Queens University in Kingston, Ontario, take this into account when the chair is appointed. As part of their compensation, a sabbatical or an appropriate opportunity to recoup lost professional productivity is offered upon leaving the post. This administrative sabbatical does not foreclose academic sabbaticals that the chair would have earned if he or she had remained a faculty member.

Jen Zorn (1978) has written the only known interview report of how the transition to faculty status affects different types of chairs. Reactions continue to be influenced by the person's initial motivation for accepting the office. Zorn's study suggests several policy considerations:

- A ceremony thanking the outgoing chair can be good for the chair and the department.
- The transition may be made easier by gradually restricting the time that the chair allots to administrative work with a gradual increase in research effort.
- A sabbatical or administrative leave is valuable, and the chair should leave the campus if possible. The department or institution may be in a position to assist with research funding.

*An individualized needs assessment questionnaire with detailed information on the training needs of chairs has been developed by Alan T. Seagren (1978).

- A salary adjustment downwards may be required. However, this adjustment should be tapered off within a fairly short period.

The importance of providing additional financial incentives and staff support for chairs has been emphasized throughout this section. Emphasis on psychological and personal matters, which are more subtle but nevertheless important, has been slight because of the lack of information on this area.

Conclusion

This section has suggested a variety of developmental strategies for chairs. A key question is whether these are to be implemented unilaterally, taking the administrative-management model as a guide for action, or to be introduced with the advice and consent of chairs. Experience suggests that lasting effects are more likely if the experience and concerns of chairs are taken into account. This may mean moving slower, but it is likely that program activities will be more successful in the end.

Evaluation is an activity that chairs shun even more than faculty do. If an institution has a culture that asserts academic norms of governance, it is likely that evaluation procedures that permit a give and take between the dean and chair will be most successful. If the rewards that chairs cherish are taken into consideration, as suggested in the previous section, programs should be more successful. The likelihood that chairs will remain productive when they step down should also be enhanced.

Conclusions and Policy Implications

Conclusions

The four major findings of this Research Report are the following:

1. Role conflict may be reduced substantially by improving institutional management.

2. Education, training, and administrative development is a central need of chairs (and deans) and their key associates—those who direct undergraduate and graduate programs. Much can be achieved by listening to chairs and responding, where possible, to their legitimate queries. Chairs often can teach one another.

Even if development programs for chairs have only modest success, it is likely that they will give chairs a perspective on administration that will serve them well when they return to faculty ranks. Having a better understanding of the institution as a whole, and the constraints under which it works, former chairs have a perspective that allows them to inject realism into departmental discussions.

3. Making the chair's role meaningful requires taking into account career orientations and disciplines. This may require changes in recruitment and selection policies to match the chair to the role. The socialization of chairs appears to require added attention as well.

4. New resources may be required to make the role of the chair manageable.

Study Limitations

The findings of this Research Report may or may not apply to an individual campus. Even before the present era of stability or decline, chairs responded conservatively to attempts to impose on them new patterns of leadership or administrative development programs. Thus, policy conclusions should be reviewed carefully to judge their practicality in terms of one's own campus, its traditions, and resources. Much evidence in this report comes from comprehensive public state universities where issues may differ from those in private or regionally supported institutions. Also, with a few notable exceptions, the data from studies are cross-sectional, showing a situation was at a particular time. There are no known longitudinal studies, with the exception of those by Bragg (1980) and Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus (1970), that give the reader a view of how departments change. No known study permits the reader to anticipate how a department's history will affect the chair or how succession after a dynamic or lethargic chair will affect faculty expectations.

Perhaps the major limitation of this Research Report is the emphasis on role conflict without taking into account occasions when chairs and faculty and administration work together cooperatively. There is no assumption that there is perpetual conflict between faculty or administration although the evidence suggests that such conflicts are common.

Policy Implications

Diverse academic disciplines and specialties that vie for dominance in a department are one source of role conflict for chairs. Another source is

the complexity of the department itself. A single administrative unit is responsible for the management and development of scholarship, undergraduate teaching, personnel, and financial and office management without institutional authority or separate budgets to carry on these activities (Millet 1968; Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus 1970). As noted in the first chapter, faculty give research and scholarship the highest priority and view administration as secondary, at least in the more selective institutions. This academic model leads to policies that make the career of the chair conditional on faculty acceptance. Although chairs spend at least half their time in academic administration, they often are selected for their academic competence. Thus, there are multiple sources of role strain.

One continuing source of instability is the discrepancy between the added tasks that departments are asked to perform and the resources provided to carry them out. The Smelser and Content case history (1980) described one example of the overload that departments must assume in recruiting faculty so that applicants receive a fair hearing and affirmative action laws are obeyed. The work of the chair can be simplified if institutional management is improved by giving more adequate resources to cover new missions.

It is natural for chairs to look to administration or state systems for help on the assumption that the resources they work with need to be commensurate with their assigned tasks. Better management of institutions can reduce the scope of departments' responsibilities to those in which their faculty excel, such as teaching or research. Student counseling, for example, is one area where better integration of academic and student services may reduce the chair's overload and also improve the counseling for students. Student and academic functions have been integrated at the University of Southern California by placing assistant deans for student affairs in academic units (Appleton, Moore, and Vinton 1978).

However, these structural changes are beyond the control of chairs. A more realistic short-term focus is to ask how the administration of departments can be adapted to changing conditions without giving up essential academic freedoms.

Assumptions regarding the proper term for the chair and the utility of education or training need to be reexamined. Dressel (1981, p. 159) suggests that the rare person who is an able administrator should be given a mandate to continue as long as he or she can. The study by Pfeffer and Moore (1980) shows that the formal term of chairs is not a useful predictor of their actual term. Instead, the discipline of the department influences the length of the chair's term.

The competition for resources, which adversely affects many of the humanities and social science disciplines, is likely to affect both the tenure of the chair and the temper of a department's life. In the social sciences and humanities, where there is keen competition as to what should be studied and how and where interdependence among faculty is minimal, conflict within departments is to be expected. Yet, these are the very departments that are most suspicious of chairs and administrators. More-

over, these are the departments in which chairs are least likely to draw job satisfaction from their work. The paradox, then, is that although most chairs seem to need some type of orientation to their work, those in the social sciences and the humanities have the greatest need but the least interest (Adkinson 1975). The model of policy making and assistance for chairs developed by the Association of Departments of English and the Association of Foreign Languages may be one that can be adapted to the needs of the social sciences and some of the humanities so that critical issues can be raised and discussed within the disciplines themselves.

Earlier, this report discussed a variety of approaches to the administrative development and evaluation of chairs. The developmental options range from brief meetings of experienced and new chairs, to extensive "training" for technical and leadership skills, to developmental work for chairs and other administrators. Some chairs may welcome participation in off-campus seminars as a way to get the "inside dope" on how administration treats similar departments or how the conflict between the social sciences and the humanities and the professions is handled in other institutions. Attention to the administrative needs of chairs may not have an immediate payoff in changed behavior, but it does give chairs a new sense that they are recognized as important to the institution and that others have similar problems. This, in itself, is a significant outcome.

The major audience for administrative development will continue to be departments in the sciences and the professions where consensus on the goals and methods of academic work provides a setting conducive to the exercise of leadership by the chair.

Research on functionally related academic departments begun by Biglan (1973) and continued by others (Creswell, Seagren, and Henry 1980) may provide some guidelines on how to maintain diversity in the administration of departments. Research may also give direction to administrative development since it suggests the power of the discipline to determine the goals, duties, and satisfactions of chairs in similar departments. Ann Bragg's typologies of role orientations should also be useful (1980).

The most significant finding of this study may be that there is a lack of role models for chairs beyond their early experience in graduate school or their contacts with faculty or administrators. Unless chairs have a personal sense of how their term as chair is connected with their later academic or administrative careers, the research evidence suggests that these chairs function on a day-to-day basis trying to "stay alive." They do not know how to retain their professional identities and still do what is expected of them.

Controversy continues concerning how deep programs for chairs should go. Experience suggests that the chair is limited by the fact that he or she usually returns to faculty status in the department when his or her term as chair ends. If programs are to get to the root of basic departmental issues, they need a commitment by the institution or a state agency to invest in extensive consultative work with the department that will lead to the consideration of major changes in departmental governance.

Appendix I

A Report on the Reappointment Process as a Means To Help Chairs and Departments

The power of a dean to use the reappointment process to learn more about a department and to protect the department and the chair is illustrated by a detailed unpublished report by J. Osborn Fuller (1967) when he was the dean of arts and sciences at Ohio State University. Fuller conducted confidential conferences with each department member near the end of a chair's term to gain an impression of the department and to learn how each faculty member viewed the work of the chair. He interviewed faculty in their office rather than in his. Fuller told faculty that he wanted to know the strengths and weaknesses in the administration of the department and how well the faculty member was realizing his or her career expectations. After that he said very little but listened. Fuller reports how personal interviews with faculty were organized and how they gave him new insight into the chair and the department:

> *I learned a lot about the department and the individuals in it. Most of my previous background [on the department] had been filtered through the chairman's eyes. I learned intimately what some of the basic problems were that the chairman faced, and I understood the total person much better. Just seeing his personality through the variety of personalities in the department gave me insights about him that I had not had previously. This would have warranted the effort put into these interviews, because I believe one of the very important roles of a Dean is to learn to understand his chairs thoroughly. . . . After collecting notes on all conferences, I took a day to analyze them and decide what I should say to the chairman. Then I called him. We had a session which might last anywhere from two hours to two days. Sometimes it was spread over two weeks, as together we tried to understand the problems and explore possible solutions. Some chairmen were quite upset as a result of the first conference, and it might take them several days to make adjustments and be willing to accept the fact that others had arrived at conclusions about their actions quite different from their own. To me this is another of the major contributions of this system. It helps the chairman continue to grow. When a chairman first takes the job he knows he has had considerable support. Over the years he had to make a series of decisions. Many have been adverse to different members of his department. Because of the unfortunate human characteristics of expressing our complaints more freely than our praises, the chairman, after a few years, doesn't know where he stands for sure. This uncertainty is aggravated by the fact that by accepting a "boss" relationship to his colleagues, he automatically is no longer one of the boys. He knows that many things are not said to him because of his position. He knows that many less than candid things are said to him because of his position (pp. 11–12, slightly paraphrased).*

If the review results in a vote of confidence the chair's morale is lifted and he or she usually continues. A limited vote of confidence leads to a

search for corrective devices. Failure to deal with a problem or lack of understanding of a situation is no sign of weakness. Faculty dissatisfaction may reflect a mismatch between the chair and the requirements of the position. It need not reflect on the chair as a person.

If there is a vote of no confidence the problem is different. Fuller states:

> *A no confidence vote is never a complete shock to a man. He realizes that trouble has been brewing and the thought has crossed his mind several times that he really doesn't like the job. He has thought about the happy days when he was just doing teaching and research. Of course, if the cards weren't stacked against him, he could do the job. If the faculty would only understand; if certain fractious members weren't in the department; if the Dean would only back him; if there were just more money; if the institution only had a better reputation, and so on. There is no question but that some chairmen are good leaders under some conditions and not under others. There should be no criticism of a failure to fit the needs of a department as its leader at any one time (p. 13).*

Appendix II

Selected Films, Simulations, and Case Studies

Films

Trigger Films on College Administration
Series C-1 (1977), Series C-2 (1980)
16mm sound, color films. A. Linc Fisch, project director
For sale by Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street NW, Washington, DC 20009.
For rent by Office of Instructional Resources, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506
Additional films available from David B. Whitcomb, director, Faculty Development Institute, California State University, Long Beach, CA 95521

Academic Department Head Game

A computer-based management game to show how chairs make decisions over a five-year period. Authors are Paul E. Torgersen and Robert E. Taylor. For information write to Paul E. Torgersen, dean, College of Engineering, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA 24061

Case Studies

A study on grievance resolution is available from Academic Collective Bargaining Information Service, Box 17230, Dulles International Airport, VA 20041

Several case studies (Bennett and Green 1982) recently written for department chairs are available from John Bennett, American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036

Selected Cases in Administration (8-377-190), Intercollegiate Bibliography, is available from Intercollegiate Case Clearing House, Soldiers Field Post Office, Boston, MA 02163

Simulation

"Running an Academic Department" has been produced by David Warren Piper, Ron Glatter, and Allan Schofield of the University Teaching Methods Unit in England. It permits participants to define load and faculty mix (proportion of junior and senior staff). Write to: UTMU, 55 Gordon Square, London WC1H ONT.

DECAD

Information on the DECAD approach to evaluation and development for chairs can be obtained from Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education, Box 3000, Manhattan, KS 66502

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